Linear Algebra

and its applications

FOURTH EDITION

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Second method: Solve the equation $a - 3b - c = 0$ for the leading variable a in terms of the free variables b and c. Any solution has the form $\begin{bmatrix} 3b+c \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$, where b and c are arbitrary, and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3b+c \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} = b\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\uparrow\ \mathbf{v}_1} + c\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\uparrow\ \mathbf{v}_2}$$

This calculation shows that $W = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Thus W is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$ by Theorem 1. We could also solve the equation $a - 3b - c = 0$ for b or c and get alternative descriptions of W as a set of linear combinations of two vectors.

2. Both $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ are in Col A. Since Col A is a vector space, $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ must be in Col A. That is, the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ is consistent.

4.3 LINEARLY INDEPENDENT SETS; BASES

In this section we identify and study the subsets that span a vector space V or a subspace H as "efficiently" as possible. The key idea is that of linear independence, defined as in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

An indexed set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V is said to be **linearly independent** if the vector equation

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{v}_p = \mathbf{0} \tag{1}$$

has *only* the trivial solution, $c_1 = 0, \dots, c_p = 0$.[1]

The set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is said to be **linearly dependent** if (1) has a nontrivial solution, that is, if there are some weights, $c_1, \dots, c_p$, *not all zero*, such that (1) holds. In such a case, (1) is called a **linear dependence relation** among $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p$.

Just as in $\mathbb{R}^n$, a set containing a single vector $\mathbf{v}$ is linearly independent if and only if $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Also, a set of two vectors is linearly dependent if and only if one of the vectors is a multiple of the other. And any set containing the zero vector is linearly dependent. The following theorem has the same proof as Theorem 7 in Section 1.7.

THEOREM 4

An indexed set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ of two or more vectors, with $\mathbf{v}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$, is linearly dependent if and only if some $\mathbf{v}_j$ (with $j > 1$) is a linear combination of the preceding vectors, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{j-1}$.

The main difference between linear dependence in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and in a general vector space is that when the vectors are not n-tuples, the homogeneous equation (1) usually cannot be written as a system of n linear equations. That is, the vectors cannot be made into the columns of a matrix A in order to study the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. We must rely instead on the definition of linear dependence and on Theorem 4.

EXAMPLE 1 Let $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1$, $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = t$, and $\mathbf{p}_3(t) = 4 - t$. Then $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3\}$ is linearly dependent in $\mathbb{P}$ because $\mathbf{p}_3 = 4\mathbf{p}_1 - \mathbf{p}_2$. ■

[1] It is convenient to use $c_1, \dots, c_p$ in (1) for the scalars instead of $x_1, \dots, x_p$, as we did in Chapter 1.

EXAMPLE 2 The set $\{\sin t, \cos t\}$ is linearly independent in $C[0,1]$, the space of all continuous functions on $0 \le t \le 1$, because $\sin t$ and $\cos t$ are not multiples of one another *as vectors in* $C[0,1]$. That is, there is no scalar c such that $\cos t = c \cdot \sin t$ for all t in $[0,1]$. (Look at the graphs of $\sin t$ and $\cos t$.) However, $\{\sin t \cos t, \sin 2t\}$ is linearly dependent because of the identity: $\sin 2t = 2 \sin t \cos t$, for all t. ■

DEFINITION

Let H be a subspace of a vector space V. An indexed set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ in V is a **basis** for H if

(i) $\mathcal{B}$ is a linearly independent set, and

(ii) the subspace spanned by $\mathcal{B}$ coincides with H; that is,

$$H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$$

The definition of a basis applies to the case when $H = V$, because any vector space is a subspace of itself. Thus a basis of V is a linearly independent set that spans V. Observe that when $H \neq V$, condition (ii) includes the requirement that each of the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p$ must belong to H, because Span $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ contains $\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_p$, as shown in Section 4.1.

EXAMPLE 3 Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix—say, $A = [\,\mathbf{a}_1 \;\; \cdots \;\; \mathbf{a}_n\,]$. Then the columns of A form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ because they are linearly independent and they span $\mathbb{R}^n$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem. ■

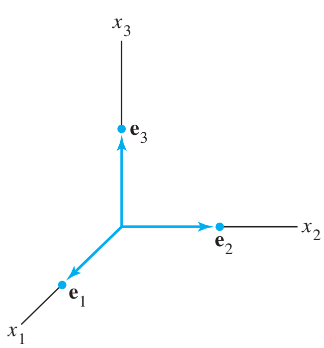


FIGURE 1
The standard basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$.

EXAMPLE 4 Let $\mathbf{e}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n$ be the columns of the $n \times n$ identity matrix, I_n. That is,

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \ldots, \quad \mathbf{e}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The set $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ is called the **standard basis** for $\mathbb{R}^n$ (Fig. 1). ■

EXAMPLE 5 Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$.

SOLUTION Since there are exactly three vectors here in $\mathbb{R}^3$, we can use any of several methods to determine if the matrix $A = [\,\mathbf{v}_1 \;\; \mathbf{v}_2 \;\; \mathbf{v}_3\,]$ is invertible. For instance, two row replacements reveal that A has three pivot positions. Thus A is invertible. As in Example 3, the columns of A form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. ■

EXAMPLE 6 Let $S = \{1, t, t^2, \ldots, t^n\}$. Verify that S is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_n$. This basis is called the **standard basis** for $\mathbb{P}_n$.

SOLUTION Certainly S spans $\mathbb{P}_n$. To show that S is linearly independent, suppose that $c_0, \ldots, c_n$ satisfy

$$c_0 \cdot 1 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 + \cdots + c_n t^n = \mathbf{0}(t) \tag{2}$$

This equality means that the polynomial on the left has the same values as the zero polynomial on the right. A fundamental theorem in algebra says that the only polynomial

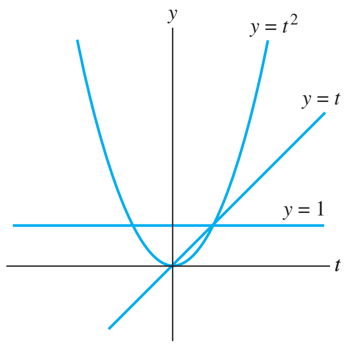


FIGURE 2
The standard basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$.

in $\mathbb{P}_n$ with more than n zeros is the zero polynomial. That is, equation (2) holds for all t only if $c_0 = \cdots = c_n = 0$. This proves that S is linearly independent and hence is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_n$. See Fig. 2. ■

Problems involving linear independence and spanning in $\mathbb{P}_n$ are handled best by a technique to be discussed in Section 4.4.

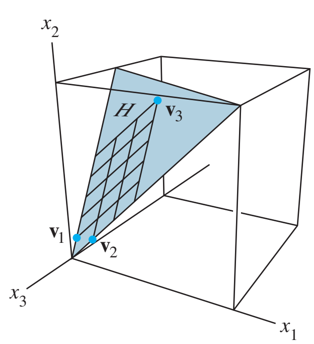
The Spanning Set Theorem

As we will see, a basis is an "efficient" spanning set that contains no unnecessary vectors. In fact, a basis can be constructed from a spanning set by discarding unneeded vectors.

EXAMPLE 7 Let

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 16 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}.$$

Note that $\mathbf{v}_3 = 5\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2$, and show that $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\} = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Then find a basis for the subspace H.



SOLUTION Every vector in $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ belongs to H because

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + 0\mathbf{v}_3$$

Now let $\mathbf{x}$ be any vector in H—say, $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + c_3\mathbf{v}_3$. Since $\mathbf{v}_3 = 5\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2$, we may substitute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + c_3(5\mathbf{v}_1 + 3\mathbf{v}_2) \\ &= (c_1 + 5c_3)\mathbf{v}_1 + (c_2 + 3c_3)\mathbf{v}_2 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\mathbf{x}$ is in $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$, so every vector in H already belongs to $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. We conclude that H and $\text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ are actually the same set of vectors. It follows that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis of H since $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is obviously linearly independent. ■

The next theorem generalizes Example 7.

THEOREM 5

The Spanning Set Theorem

Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ be a set in V, and let $H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$.

a. If one of the vectors in S—say, $\mathbf{v}_k$—is a linear combination of the remaining vectors in S, then the set formed from S by removing $\mathbf{v}_k$ still spans H.

b. If $H \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$, some subset of S is a basis for H.

PROOF

a. By rearranging the list of vectors in S, if necessary, we may suppose that $\mathbf{v}_p$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{p-1}$—say,

$$\mathbf{v}_p = a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + a_{p-1}\mathbf{v}_{p-1} \tag{3}$$

Given any $\mathbf{x}$ in H, we may write

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + c_{p-1}\mathbf{v}_{p-1} + c_p\mathbf{v}_p \tag{4}$$

for suitable scalars $c_1, \ldots, c_p$. Substituting the expression for $\mathbf{v}_p$ from (3) into (4), it is easy to see that $\mathbf{x}$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{p-1}$. Thus $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{p-1}\}$ spans H, because $\mathbf{x}$ was an arbitrary element of H.

b. If the original spanning set S is linearly independent, then it is already a basis for H. Otherwise, one of the vectors in S depends on the others and can be deleted, by part (a). So long as there are two or more vectors in the spanning set, we can repeat this process until the spanning set is linearly independent and hence is a basis for H. If the spanning set is eventually reduced to one vector, that vector will be nonzero (and hence linearly independent) because $H \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$. ■

Bases for Nul A and Col A

We already know how to find vectors that span the null space of a matrix A. The discussion in Section 4.2 pointed out that our method always produces a linearly independent set when Nul A contains nonzero vectors. So, in this case, that method produces a *basis* for Nul A.

The next two examples describe a simple algorithm for finding a basis for the column space.

EXAMPLE 8 Find a basis for Col B, where

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1 & \mathbf{b}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{b}_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION Each nonpivot column of B is a linear combination of the pivot columns. In fact, $\mathbf{b}_2 = 4\mathbf{b}_1$ and $\mathbf{b}_4 = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_3$. By the Spanning Set Theorem, we may discard $\mathbf{b}_2$ and $\mathbf{b}_4$, and $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_5\}$ will still span Col B. Let

$$S = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_5\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Since $\mathbf{b}_1 \neq 0$ and no vector in S is a linear combination of the vectors that precede it, S is linearly independent (Theorem 4). Thus S is a basis for Col B. ■

What about a matrix A that is *not* in reduced echelon form? Recall that any linear dependence relationship among the columns of A can be expressed in the form $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, where $\mathbf{x}$ is a column of weights. (If some columns are not involved in a particular dependence relation, then their weights are zero.) When A is row reduced to a matrix B, the columns of B are often totally different from the columns of A. However, the equations $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ and $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ have exactly the same set of solutions. If $A = [\,\mathbf{a}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_n\,]$ and $B = [\,\mathbf{b}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_n\,]$, then the vector equations

$$x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad x_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{b}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

also have the same set of solutions. That is, the columns of A have *exactly the same linear dependence relationships* as the columns of B.

EXAMPLE 9 It can be shown that the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{a}_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 12 & 1 & 5 & 5 \\ 2 & 8 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 5 & 20 & 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

is row equivalent to the matrix B in Example 8. Find a basis for Col A.

SOLUTION In Example 8 we saw that

$$\mathbf{b}_2 = 4\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b}_4 = 2\mathbf{b}_1 - \mathbf{b}_3$$

so we can expect that

$$\mathbf{a}_2 = 4\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{a}_4 = 2\mathbf{a}_1 - \mathbf{a}_3$$

Check that this is indeed the case! Thus we may discard $\mathbf{a}_2$ and $\mathbf{a}_4$ when selecting a minimal spanning set for Col A. In fact, $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3, \mathbf{a}_5\}$ must be linearly independent because any linear dependence relationship among $\mathbf{a}_1$, $\mathbf{a}_3$, $\mathbf{a}_5$ would imply a linear dependence relationship among $\mathbf{b}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_3$, $\mathbf{b}_5$. But we know that $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_5\}$ is a linearly independent set. Thus $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_3, \mathbf{a}_5\}$ is a basis for Col A. The columns we have used for this basis are the pivot columns of A. ■

Examples 8 and 9 illustrate the following useful fact.

THEOREM 6

The pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis for Col A.

PROOF The general proof uses the arguments discussed above. Let B be the reduced echelon form of A. The set of pivot columns of B is linearly independent, for no vector in the set is a linear combination of the vectors that precede it. Since A is row equivalent to B, the pivot columns of A are linearly independent as well, because any linear dependence relation among the columns of A corresponds to a linear dependence relation among the columns of B. For this same reason, every nonpivot column of A is a linear combination of the pivot columns of A. Thus the nonpivot columns of A may be discarded from the spanning set for Col A, by the Spanning Set Theorem. This leaves the pivot columns of A as a basis for Col A. ■

Warning: The pivot columns of a matrix A are evident when A has been reduced only to *echelon* form. But, be careful to use the *pivot columns of A itself* for the basis of Col A. Row operations can change the column space of a matrix. The columns of an echelon form B of A are often not in the column space of A. For instance, the columns of matrix B in Example 8 all have zeros in their last entries, so they cannot span the column space of matrix A in Example 9.

Two Views of a Basis

When the Spanning Set Theorem is used, the deletion of vectors from a spanning set must stop when the set becomes linearly independent. If an additional vector is deleted, it will not be a linear combination of the remaining vectors, and hence the smaller set will no longer span V. Thus a basis is a spanning set that is as small as possible.

A basis is also a linearly independent set that is as large as possible. If S is a basis for V, and if S is enlarged by one vector—say, $\mathbf{w}$—from V, then the new set cannot be linearly independent, because S spans V, and $\mathbf{w}$ is therefore a linear combination of the elements in S.

EXAMPLE 10 The following three sets in $\mathbb{R}^3$ show how a linearly independent set can be enlarged to a basis and how further enlargement destroys the linear independence of the set. Also, a spanning set can be shrunk to a basis, but further shrinking destroys the spanning property.

$$\left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix}\right\} \qquad \left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix}\right\} \qquad \left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}7\\8\\9\end{bmatrix}\right\}$$

Linearly independent but does not span $\mathbb{R}^3$ | A basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$ | Spans $\mathbb{R}^3$ but is linearly dependent ■

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix}1\\-2\\3\end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix}-2\\7\\-9\end{bmatrix}$. Determine if $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$?

2. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix}1\\-3\\4\end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix}6\\2\\-1\end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix}2\\-2\\3\end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix}-4\\-8\\9\end{bmatrix}$. Find a basis for the subspace W spanned by $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$.

3. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}$, and $H = \left\{\begin{bmatrix}s\\s\\0\end{bmatrix} : s \text{ in } \mathbb{R}\right\}$. Then every vector in H is a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ because

$$\begin{bmatrix}s\\s\\0\end{bmatrix} = s\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix} + s\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{bmatrix}$$

Is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ a basis for H?

SG Mastering: Basis 4–9

4.3 EXERCISES

Determine whether the sets in Exercises 1–8 are bases for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Of the sets that are *not* bases, determine which ones are linearly independent and which ones span $\mathbb{R}^3$. Justify your answers.

1. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\1\end{bmatrix}$

2. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\1\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}0\\1\\1\end{bmatrix}$

3. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\-3\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}3\\1\\-4\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}-2\\-1\\1\end{bmatrix}$

4. $\begin{bmatrix}2\\-1\\1\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\-3\\2\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}-8\\5\\4\end{bmatrix}$

5. $\begin{bmatrix}3\\-3\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}-3\\7\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}0\\-3\\5\end{bmatrix}$

6. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\2\\-4\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}-4\\3\\6\end{bmatrix}$

7. $\begin{bmatrix}-2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}6\\-1\\5\end{bmatrix}$

8. $\begin{bmatrix}1\\-2\\3\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}0\\3\\-1\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\-1\\5\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}0\\0\\-1\end{bmatrix}$

Find bases for the null spaces of the matrices given in Exercises 9 and 10. Refer to the remarks that follow Example 3 in Section 4.2.

9. $\begin{bmatrix}1&0&-2&-2\\0&1&1&4\\3&-1&-7&3\end{bmatrix}$

10. $\begin{bmatrix}1&1&-2&1&5\\0&1&0&-1&-2\\0&0&-8&0&16\end{bmatrix}$

11. Find a basis for the set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ in the plane $x - 3y + 2z = 0$. [*Hint:* Think of the equation as a "system" of homogeneous equations.]

12. Find a basis for the set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^2$ on the line $y = -3x$.

In Exercises 13 and 14, assume that A is row equivalent to B. Find bases for Nul A and Col A.

13. $A = \begin{bmatrix}-2&4&-2&-4\\2&-6&-3&1\\-3&8&2&-3\end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix}1&0&6&5\\0&2&5&3\\0&0&0&0\end{bmatrix}$

14. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & -4 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 8 \\ 2 & 4 & -3 & 10 & 9 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$,

$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -6 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 15–18, find a basis for the space spanned by the given vectors, $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_5$.

15. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -8 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 10 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ -6 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$

16. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \\ 3 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

17. [**M**] $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -4 \\ -6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \\ 8 \\ -3 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 4 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

18. [**M**] $\begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \\ 6 \\ 0 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -9 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -4 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ -14 \\ 0 \\ 13 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

19. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 11 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$, and also let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$. It can be verified that $4\mathbf{v}_1 + 5\mathbf{v}_2 - 3\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$. Use this information to find a basis for H. There is more than one answer.

20. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ -2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ -6 \\ -14 \end{bmatrix}$. It can be verified that $2\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{0}$. Use this information to find a basis for $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$.

In Exercises 21 and 22, mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

21. a. A single vector by itself is linearly dependent.

b. If $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$, then $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ is a basis for H.

c. The columns of an invertible $n \times n$ matrix form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

d. A basis is a spanning set that is as large as possible.

e. In some cases, the linear dependence relations among the columns of a matrix can be affected by certain elementary row operations on the matrix.

22. a. A linearly independent set in a subspace H is a basis for H.

b. If a finite set S of nonzero vectors spans a vector space V, then some subset of S is a basis for V.

c. A basis is a linearly independent set that is as large as possible.

d. The standard method for producing a spanning set for Nul A, described in Section 4.2, sometimes fails to produce a basis for Nul A.

e. If B is an echelon form of a matrix A, then the pivot columns of B form a basis for Col A.

23. Suppose $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$. Explain why $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{R}^4$.

24. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ be a linearly independent set in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Explain why $\mathcal{B}$ must be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

25. Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and let H be the set of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose second and third entries are equal. Then every vector in H has a unique expansion as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$, because

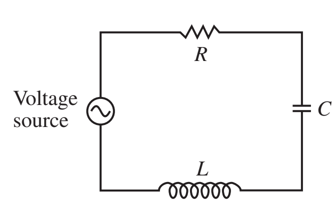
$$\begin{bmatrix} s \\ t \\ t \end{bmatrix} = s\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + (t - s)\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + s\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for any s and t. Is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ a basis for H? Why or why not?

26. In the vector space of all real-valued functions, find a basis for the subspace spanned by $\{\sin t, \sin 2t, \sin t \cos t\}$.

27. Let V be the vector space of functions that describe the vibration of a mass–spring system. (Refer to Exercise 19 in Section 4.1.) Find a basis for V.

28. (*RLC circuit*) The circuit in the figure consists of a resistor (R ohms), an inductor (L henrys), a capacitor (C farads), and an initial voltage source. Let $b = R/(2L)$, and suppose R, L, and C have been selected so that b also equals $1/\sqrt{LC}$. (This is done, for instance, when the circuit is used in a voltmeter.) Let $v(t)$ be the voltage (in volts) at time t, measured across the capacitor. It can be shown that v is in the null space H of the linear transformation that maps $v(t)$ into $Lv''(t) + Rv'(t) + (1/C)v(t)$, and H consists of all functions of the form $v(t) = e^{-bt}(c_1 + c_2 t)$. Find a basis for H.



Exercises 29 and 30 show that every basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ must contain exactly n vectors.

29. Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ be a set of k vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$, with $k < n$. Use a theorem from Section 1.4 to explain why S cannot be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

30. Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ be a set of k vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$, with $k > n$. Use a theorem from Chapter 1 to explain why S cannot be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Exercises 31 and 32 reveal an important connection between linear independence and linear transformations and provide practice using the definition of linear dependence. Let V and W be vector spaces, let $T : V \to W$ be a linear transformation, and let $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ be a subset of V.

31. Show that if $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is linearly dependent in V, then the set of images, $\{T(\mathbf{v}_1), \ldots, T(\mathbf{v}_p)\}$, is linearly dependent in W. This fact shows that if a linear transformation maps a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ onto a linearly *independent* set $\{T(\mathbf{v}_1), \ldots, T(\mathbf{v}_p)\}$, then the original set is linearly independent, too (because it cannot be linearly dependent).

32. Suppose that T is a one-to-one transformation, so that an equation $T(\mathbf{u}) = T(\mathbf{v})$ always implies $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$. Show that if the set of images $\{T(\mathbf{v}_1), \ldots, T(\mathbf{v}_p)\}$ is linearly dependent, then $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ is linearly dependent. This fact shows that *a one-to-one linear transformation maps a linearly independent set onto a linearly independent set* (because in this case the set of images cannot be linearly dependent).

33. Consider the polynomials $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1 + t^2$ and $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = 1 - t^2$. Is $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2\}$ a linearly independent set in $\mathbb{P}_3$? Why or why not?

34. Consider the polynomials $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1 + t$, $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = 1 - t$, and $\mathbf{p}_3(t) = 2$ (for all t). By inspection, write a linear dependence relation among $\mathbf{p}_1$, $\mathbf{p}_2$, and $\mathbf{p}_3$. Then find a basis for Span $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3\}$.

35. Let V be a vector space that contains a linearly independent set $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{u}_4\}$. Describe how to construct a set of vectors $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ in V such that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is a basis for Span $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$.

36. **[M]** Let $H = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3\}$ and $K = \text{Span}\,\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$, where

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 4 \\ 6 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find bases for H, K, and $H + K$. (See Exercises 33 and 34 in Section 4.1.)

37. **[M]** Show that $\{t, \sin t, \cos 2t, \sin t \cos t\}$ is a linearly independent set of functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$. Start by assuming that

$$c_1 \cdot t + c_2 \cdot \sin t + c_3 \cdot \cos 2t + c_4 \cdot \sin t \cos t = 0 \tag{5}$$

Equation (5) must hold for all real t, so choose several specific values of t (say, $t = 0, .1, .2$) until you get a system of enough equations to determine that all the c_j must be zero.

38. **[M]** Show that $\{1, \cos t, \cos^2 t, \ldots, \cos^6 t\}$ is a linearly independent set of functions defined on $\mathbb{R}$. Use the method of Exercise 37. (This result will be needed in Exercise 34 in Section 4.5.)

WEB

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $A = [\,\mathbf{v}_1 \quad \mathbf{v}_2\,]$. Row operations show that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 7 \\ 3 & -9 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Not every row of A contains a pivot position. So the columns of A do not span $\mathbb{R}^3$, by Theorem 4 in Section 1.4. Hence $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is not a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$. Since $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are not in $\mathbb{R}^2$, they cannot possibly be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^2$. However, since $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are obviously linearly independent, they are a basis for a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$, namely, Span $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$.

2. Set up a matrix A whose column space is the space spanned by $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}_4\}$, and then row reduce A to find its pivot columns.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & -4 \\ -3 & 2 & -2 & -8 \\ 4 & -1 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 20 & 4 & -20 \\ 0 & -25 & -5 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & 5 & 1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The first two columns of A are the pivot columns and hence form a basis of Col $A = W$. Hence $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for W. Note that the reduced echelon form of A is not needed in order to locate the pivot columns.

3. Neither $\mathbf{v}_1$ nor $\mathbf{v}_2$ is in H, so $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ cannot be a basis for H. In fact, $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ is a basis for the *plane* of all vectors of the form $(c_1, c_2, 0)$, but H is only a *line*.

4.4 COORDINATE SYSTEMS

An important reason for specifying a basis $\mathcal{B}$ for a vector space V is to impose a "coordinate system" on V. This section will show that if $\mathcal{B}$ contains n vectors, then the coordinate system will make V act like $\mathbb{R}^n$. If V is already $\mathbb{R}^n$ itself, then $\mathcal{B}$ will determine a coordinate system that gives a new "view" of V.

The existence of coordinate systems rests on the following fundamental result.

THEOREM 7

The Unique Representation Theorem

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then for each $\mathbf{x}$ in V, there exists a unique set of scalars $c_1, \dots, c_n$ such that

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n \tag{1}$$

PROOF Since $\mathcal{B}$ spans V, there exist scalars such that (1) holds. Suppose $\mathbf{x}$ also has the representation

$$\mathbf{x} = d_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

for scalars $d_1, \dots, d_n$. Then, subtracting, we have

$$\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x} = (c_1 - d_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + (c_n - d_n)\mathbf{b}_n \tag{2}$$

Since $\mathcal{B}$ is linearly independent, the weights in (2) must all be zero. That is, $c_j = d_j$ for $1 \le j \le n$. ■

DEFINITION

Suppose $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ is a basis for V and $\mathbf{x}$ is in V. The **coordinates of x relative to the basis $\mathcal{B}$** (or the **$\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of x**) are the weights $c_1, \dots, c_n$ such that $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$.

If $c_1, \dots, c_n$ are the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$, then the vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is the **coordinate vector of x (relative to $\mathcal{B}$)**, or the **$\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of x**. The mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the **coordinate mapping (determined by $\mathcal{B}$)**.[1]

[1] The concept of a coordinate mapping assumes that the basis $\mathcal{B}$ is an indexed set whose vectors are listed in some fixed preassigned order. This property makes the definition of $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ unambiguous.

EXAMPLE 1 Consider a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^2$, where $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose an $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$ has the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $\mathbf{x}$.

SOLUTION The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ tell how to build $\mathbf{x}$ from the vectors in $\mathcal{B}$. That is,

$$\mathbf{x} = (-2)\mathbf{b}_1 + 3\mathbf{b}_2 = (-2)\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 3\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

EXAMPLE 2 The entries in the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ are the coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the *standard basis* $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 + 6 \cdot \mathbf{e}_2$$

If $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, then $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{x}$.

A Graphical Interpretation of Coordinates

A coordinate system on a set consists of a one-to-one mapping of the points in the set into $\mathbb{R}^n$. For example, ordinary graph paper provides a coordinate system for the plane when one selects perpendicular axes and a unit of measurement on each axis. Figure 1 shows the standard basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1 (= \mathbf{e}_1)$ and $\mathbf{b}_2$ from Example 1, and the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$. The coordinates 1 and 6 give the location of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the standard basis: 1 unit in the $\mathbf{e}_1$ direction and 6 units in the $\mathbf{e}_2$ direction.

Figure 2 shows the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1$, $\mathbf{b}_2$, and $\mathbf{x}$ from Fig. 1. (Geometrically, the three vectors lie on a vertical line in both figures.) However, the standard coordinate grid was erased and replaced by a grid especially adapted to the basis $\mathcal{B}$ in Example 1. The coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ gives the location of $\mathbf{x}$ on this new coordinate system: -2 units in the $\mathbf{b}_1$ direction and 3 units in the $\mathbf{b}_2$ direction.

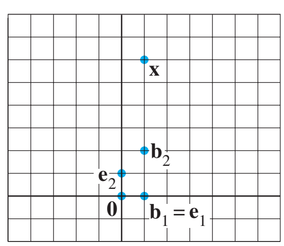


FIGURE 1 Standard graph paper.

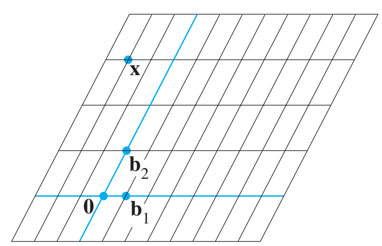
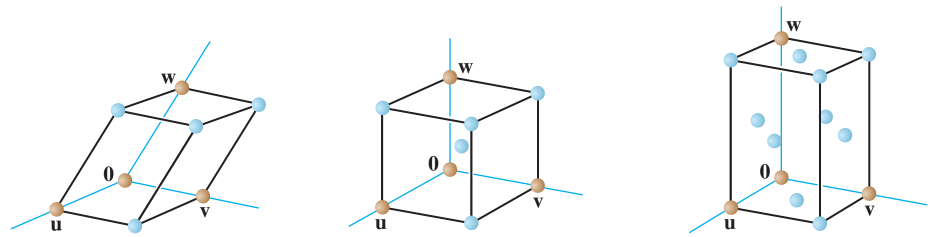


FIGURE 2 $\mathcal{B}$-graph paper.

EXAMPLE 3 In crystallography, the description of a crystal lattice is aided by choosing a basis $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^3$ that corresponds to three adjacent edges of one "unit cell" of the crystal. An entire lattice is constructed by stacking together many copies of one cell. There are fourteen basic types of unit cells; three are displayed in Fig. 3.[2]

[2] Adapted from *The Science and Engineering of Materials*, 4th Ed., by Donald R. Askeland (Boston: Prindle, Weber & Schmidt, ©2002), p. 36.



(a) Simple monoclinic

(b) Body-centered cubic

(c) Face-centered orthorhombic

FIGURE 3 Examples of unit cells.

The coordinates of atoms within the crystal are given relative to the basis for the lattice. For instance,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

identifies the top face-centered atom in the cell in Fig. 3(c). ■

Coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^n$

When a basis $\mathcal{B}$ for $\mathbb{R}^n$ is fixed, the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of a specified $\mathbf{x}$ is easily found, as in the next example.

EXAMPLE 4 Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$. Find the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

SOLUTION The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates c_1, c_2 of $\mathbf{x}$ satisfy

$$c_1 \underset{\mathbf{b}_1}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} + c_2 \underset{\mathbf{b}_2}{\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}}$$

or

$$\begin{array}{cc} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}} \tag{3}$$

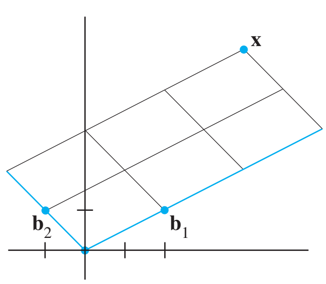


FIGURE 4
The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$ is $(3, 2)$.

This equation can be solved by row operations on an augmented matrix or by using the inverse of the matrix on the left. In any case, the solution is $c_1 = 3$, $c_2 = 2$. Thus $\mathbf{x} = 3\mathbf{b}_1 + 2\mathbf{b}_2$, and

$$[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$ ■

See Fig. 4.

The matrix in (3) changes the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of a vector $\mathbf{x}$ into the standard coordinates for $\mathbf{x}$. An analogous change of coordinates can be carried out in $\mathbb{R}^n$ for a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$. Let

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\,\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b}_n\,]$$

Then the vector equation

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

is equivalent to

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}}[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}} \tag{4}$$

We call $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ the **change-of-coordinates matrix** from $\mathcal{B}$ to the standard basis in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Left-multiplication by $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ transforms the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ into $\mathbf{x}$. The change-of-coordinates equation (4) is important and will be needed at several points in Chapters 5 and 7.

Since the columns of $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$, $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is invertible (by the Invertible Matrix Theorem). Left-multiplication by $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ converts $\mathbf{x}$ into its $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector:

$$P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

The correspondence $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$, produced here by $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$, is the coordinate mapping mentioned earlier. Since $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ is an invertible matrix, the coordinate mapping is a one-to-one linear transformation from $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem. (See also Theorem 12 in Section 1.9.) This property of the coordinate mapping is also true in a general vector space that has a basis, as we shall see.

The Coordinate Mapping

Choosing a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ for a vector space V introduces a coordinate system in V. The coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ connects the possibly unfamiliar space V to the familiar space $\mathbb{R}^n$. See Fig. 5. Points in V can now be identified by their new "names."

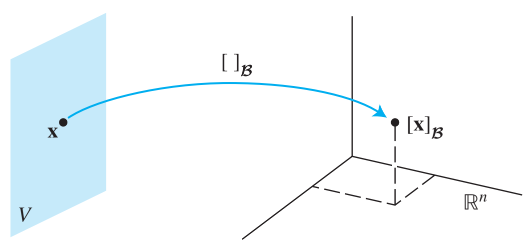


FIGURE 5 The coordinate mapping from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$.

THEOREM 8

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a one-to-one linear transformation from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$.

PROOF Take two typical vectors in V, say,

$$\mathbf{u} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$$
$$\mathbf{w} = d_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

Then, using vector operations,

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} = (c_1 + d_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + (c_n + d_n)\mathbf{b}_n$$

It follows that

$$[\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{w}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 + d_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n + d_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} + [\mathbf{w}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

So the coordinate mapping preserves addition. If r is any scalar, then

$$r\mathbf{u} = r(c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n) = (rc_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + (rc_n)\mathbf{b}_n$$

So

$$[r\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} rc_1 \\ \vdots \\ rc_n \end{bmatrix} = r\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = r[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

Thus the coordinate mapping also preserves scalar multiplication and hence is a linear transformation. See Exercises 23 and 24 for verification that the coordinate mapping is one-to-one and maps V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. ■

The linearity of the coordinate mapping extends to linear combinations, just as in Section 1.8. If $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p$ are in V and if $c_1, \ldots, c_p$ are scalars, then

$$[c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p]_{\mathcal{B}} = c_1[\mathbf{u}_1]_{\mathcal{B}} + \cdots + c_p[\mathbf{u}_p]_{\mathcal{B}} \tag{5}$$

In words, (5) says that the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of a linear combination of $\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p$ is the *same* linear combination of their coordinate vectors.

The coordinate mapping in Theorem 8 is an important example of an *isomorphism* from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$. In general, a one-to-one linear transformation from a vector space V onto a vector space W is called an **isomorphism** from V onto W (*iso* from the Greek for "the same," and *morph* from the Greek for "form" or "structure"). The notation and terminology for V and W may differ, but the two spaces are indistinguishable as vector spaces. *Every vector space calculation in V is accurately reproduced in W, and vice versa.* In particular, any real vector space with a basis of n vectors is indistinguishable from $\mathbb{R}^n$. See Exercises 25 and 26.

SG Isomorphic Vector Spaces 4–11

EXAMPLE 5 Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the standard basis of the space $\mathbb{P}_3$ of polynomials; that is, let $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$. A typical element $\mathbf{p}$ of $\mathbb{P}_3$ has the form

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2 + a_3t^3$$

Since $\mathbf{p}$ is already displayed as a linear combination of the standard basis vectors, we conclude that

$$[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{p} \mapsto [\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is an isomorphism from $\mathbb{P}_3$ onto $\mathbb{R}^4$. All vector space operations in $\mathbb{P}_3$ correspond to operations in $\mathbb{R}^4$. ■

If we think of $\mathbb{P}_3$ and $\mathbb{R}^4$ as displays on two computer screens that are connected via the coordinate mapping, then every vector space operation in $\mathbb{P}_3$ on one screen is exactly duplicated by a corresponding vector operation in $\mathbb{R}^4$ on the other screen. The vectors on the $\mathbb{P}_3$ screen look different from those on the $\mathbb{R}^4$ screen, but they "act" as vectors in exactly the same way. See Fig. 6.

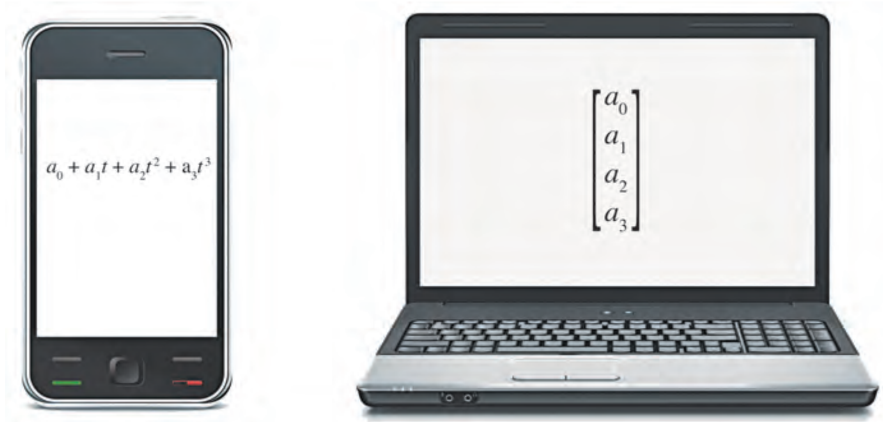


FIGURE 6 The space $\mathbb{P}_3$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^4$.

EXAMPLE 6 Use coordinate vectors to verify that the polynomials $1 + 2t^2$, $4 + t + 5t^2$, and $3 + 2t$ are linearly dependent in $\mathbb{P}_2$.

SOLUTION The coordinate mapping from Example 5 produces the coordinate vectors $(1, 0, 2)$, $(4, 1, 5)$, and $(3, 2, 0)$, respectively. Writing these vectors as the *columns* of a matrix A, we can determine their independence by row reducing the augmented matrix for $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The columns of A are linearly dependent, so the corresponding polynomials are linearly dependent. In fact, it is easy to check that column 3 of A is 2 times column 2 minus 5 times column 1. The corresponding relation for the polynomials is

$$3 + 2t = 2(4 + t + 5t^2) - 5(1 + 2t^2) \qquad ■$$

The final example concerns a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$ that is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$.

EXAMPLE 7 Let

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix},$$

and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Then $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Determine if $\mathbf{x}$ is in H, and if it is, find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

SOLUTION If $\mathbf{x}$ is in H, then the following vector equation is consistent:

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

The scalars c_1 and c_2, if they exist, are the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$. Using row operations, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 3 \\ 6 & 0 & 12 \\ 2 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus $c_1 = 2$, $c_2 = 3$, and $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The coordinate system on H determined by $\mathcal{B}$ is shown in Fig. 7. ■

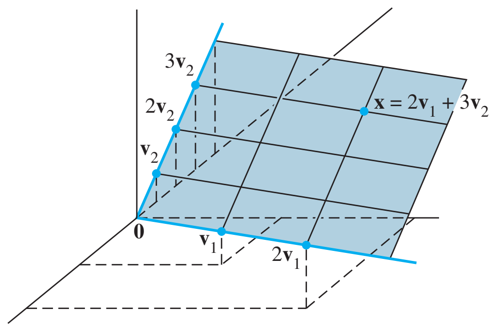


FIGURE 7 A coordinate system on a plane H in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

If a different basis for H were chosen, would the associated coordinate system also make H isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$? Surely, this must be true. We shall prove it in the next section.

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -8 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$.
   a. Show that the set $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3\}$ is a basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
   b. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to the standard basis.
   c. Write the equation that relates $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ to $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$.
   d. Find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$, for the $\mathbf{x}$ given above.
2. The set $\mathcal{B} = \{1 + t, 1 + t^2, t + t^2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}(t) = 6 + 3t - t^2$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

4.4 EXERCISES

In Exercises 1–4, find the vector $\mathbf{x}$ determined by the given coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ and the given basis $\mathcal{B}$.

1. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

2. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$

3. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

4. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$, $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 5–8, find the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the given basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$.

5. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

6. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$

7. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 4 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -9 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$

8. $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 9 and 10, find the change-of-coordinates matrix from $\mathcal{B}$ to the standard basis in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

9. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

10. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

In Exercises 11 and 12, use an inverse matrix to find $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for the given $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathcal{B}$.

11. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$

12. $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

13. The set $\mathcal{B} = \{1 + t^2, t + t^2, 1 + 2t + t^2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}(t) = 1 + 4t + 7t^2$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

14. The set $\mathcal{B} = \{1 - t^2, t - t^2, 2 - t + t^2\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}(t) = 1 + 3t - 6t^2$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

In Exercises 15 and 16, mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer. Unless stated otherwise, $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for a vector space V.

15. a. If $\mathbf{x}$ is in V and if $\mathcal{B}$ contains n vectors, then the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$ is in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

b. If $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the change-of-coordinates matrix, then $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = P_{\mathcal{B}}\mathbf{x}$, for $\mathbf{x}$ in V.

c. The vector spaces $\mathbb{P}_3$ and $\mathbb{R}^3$ are isomorphic.

16. a. If $\mathcal{B}$ is the standard basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$, then the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of an $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ is $\mathbf{x}$ itself.

b. The correspondence $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} \mapsto \mathbf{x}$ is called the coordinate mapping.

c. In some cases, a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$ can be isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$.

17. The vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ span $\mathbb{R}^2$ but do not form a basis. Find two different ways to express $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$.

18. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Explain why the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vectors of $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$ are the columns $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ of the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

19. Let S be a finite set in a vector space V with the property that every $\mathbf{x}$ in V has a unique representation as a linear combination of elements of S. Show that S is a basis of V.

20. Suppose $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is a linearly dependent spanning set for a vector space V. Show that each $\mathbf{w}$ in V can be expressed in more than one way as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4$. [*Hint:* Let $\mathbf{w} = k_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + k_4\mathbf{v}_4$ be an arbitrary vector in V. Use the linear dependence of $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ to produce another representation of $\mathbf{w}$ as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_4$.]

21. Let $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$. Since the coordinate mapping determined by $\mathcal{B}$ is a linear transformation from $\mathbb{R}^2$ into $\mathbb{R}^2$, this mapping must be implemented by some 2×2 matrix A. Find it. [*Hint:* Multiplication by A should transform a vector $\mathbf{x}$ into its coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$.]

22. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$. Produce a description of an $n \times n$ matrix A that implements the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$. (See Exercise 21.)

Exercises 23–26 concern a vector space V, a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$, and the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

23. Show that the coordinate mapping is one-to-one. (*Hint:* Suppose $[\,\mathbf{u}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\,\mathbf{w}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for some $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ in V, and show that $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{w}$.)

24. Show that the coordinate mapping is *onto* $\mathbb{R}^n$. That is, given any $\mathbf{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, with entries $y_1, \dots, y_n$, produce $\mathbf{u}$ in V such that $[\,\mathbf{u}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \mathbf{y}$.

25. Show that a subset $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ in V is linearly independent if and only if the set of coordinate vectors $\{[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, [\,\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}}\}$ is linearly independent in $\mathbb{R}^n$. *Hint:* Since the coordinate mapping is one-to-one, the following equations have the same solutions, $c_1, \dots, c_p$.

$$c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p = \mathbf{0} \qquad \text{The zero vector in } V$$
$$[\,c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = [\,\mathbf{0}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} \qquad \text{The zero vector in } \mathbb{R}^n$$

26. Given vectors $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$, and $\mathbf{w}$ in V, show that $\mathbf{w}$ is a linear combination of $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$ if and only if $[\,\mathbf{w}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a linear combination of the coordinate vectors $[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, [\,\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$.

In Exercises 27–30, use coordinate vectors to test the linear independence of the sets of polynomials. Explain your work.

27. $1 + 2t^3,\ 2 + t - 3t^2,\ -t + 2t^2 - t^3$

28. $1 - 2t^2 - t^3,\ t + 2t^3,\ 1 + t - 2t^2$

29. $(1 - t)^2,\ t - 2t^2 + t^3,\ (1 - t)^3$

30. $(2 - t)^3,\ (3 - t)^2,\ 1 + 6t - 5t^2 + t^3$

31. Use coordinate vectors to test whether the following sets of polynomials span $\mathbb{P}_2$. Justify your conclusions.

a. $1 - 3t + 5t^2, -3 + 5t - 7t^2, -4 + 5t - 6t^2, 1 - t^2$

b. $5t + t^2, 1 - 8t - 2t^2, -3 + 4t + 2t^2, 2 - 3t$

32. Let $\mathbf{p}_1(t) = 1 + t^2$, $\mathbf{p}_2(t) = t - 3t^2$, $\mathbf{p}_3(t) = 1 + t - 3t^2$.

a. Use coordinate vectors to show that these polynomials form a basis for $\mathbb{P}_2$.

b. Consider the basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3\}$ for $\mathbb{P}_2$. Find $\mathbf{q}$ in $\mathbb{P}_2$, given that $[\mathbf{q}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

In Exercises 33 and 34, determine whether the sets of polynomials form a basis for $\mathbb{P}_3$. Justify your conclusions.

33. [**M**] $3+7t, 5+t-2t^3, t-2t^2, 1+16t-6t^2+2t^3$

34. [**M**] $5-3t+4t^2+2t^3, 9+t+8t^2-6t^3, 6-2t+5t^2, t^3$

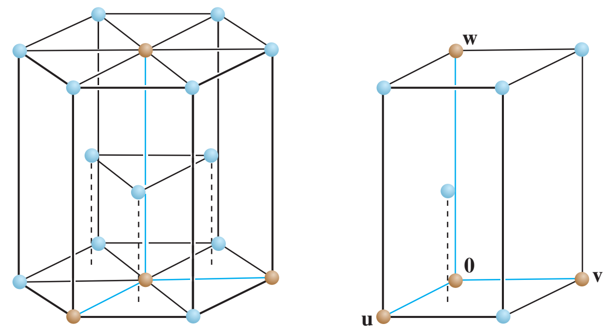
35. [**M**] Let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$. Show that $\mathbf{x}$ is in H and find the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$, for

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ -5 \\ 10 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 14 \\ -8 \\ 13 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 19 \\ -13 \\ 18 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

36. [**M**] Let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$. Show that $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for H and $\mathbf{x}$ is in H, and find the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$, for

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 4 \\ -9 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -3 \\ 7 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 5 \\ -8 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \\ -8 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

[**M**] Exercises 37 and 38 concern the crystal lattice for titanium, which has the hexagonal structure shown on the left in the accompanying figure. The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 2.6 \\ -1.5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 4.8 \end{bmatrix}$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ form a basis for the unit cell shown on the right. The numbers here are Ångstrom units (1 Å $= 10^{-8}$ cm). In alloys of titanium, some additional atoms may be in the unit cell at the *octahedral* and *tetrahedral* sites (so named because of the geometric objects formed by atoms at these locations).



The hexagonal close-packed lattice and its unit cell.

37. One of the octahedral sites is $\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/6 \end{bmatrix}$, relative to the lattice basis. Determine the coordinates of this site relative to the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

38. One of the tetrahedral sites is $\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/3 \end{bmatrix}$. Determine the coordinates of this site relative to the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. a. It is evident that the matrix $P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\,\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \mathbf{b}_3\,]$ is row-equivalent to the identity matrix. By the Invertible Matrix Theorem, $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is invertible and its columns form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$.

b. From part (a), the change-of-coordinates matrix is $P_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

c. $\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}}[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$

d. To solve the equation in (c), it is probably easier to row reduce an augmented matrix than to compute $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 & -8 \\ 0 & 4 & -6 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}}_{P_{\mathcal{B}} \qquad \mathbf{x}} \sim \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{I \qquad [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}}$$

Hence

$$[\,\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{B}}\,] = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2. The coordinates of $\mathbf{p}(t) = 6+3t-t^2$ with respect to $\mathcal{B}$ satisfy

$$c_1(1+t) + c_2(1+t^2) + c_3(t+t^2) = 6+3t-t^2$$

Equating coefficients of like powers of t, we have

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 + c_2 &= 6 \\ c_1 + c_3 &= 3 \\ c_2 + c_3 &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

Solving, we find that $c_1 = 5$, $c_2 = 1$, $c_3 = -2$, and $[\,\mathbf{p}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$.

4.5 THE DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

Theorem 8 in Section 4.4 implies that a vector space V with a basis $\mathcal{B}$ containing n vectors is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$. This section shows that this number n is an intrinsic property (called the dimension) of the space V that does not depend on the particular choice of basis. The discussion of dimension will give additional insight into properties of bases.

The first theorem generalizes a well-known result about the vector space $\mathbb{R}^n$.

THEOREM 9

If a vector space V has a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$, then any set in V containing more than n vectors must be linearly dependent.

PROOF Let $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ be a set in V with more than n vectors. The coordinate vectors $[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{B}}, \dots, [\,\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ form a linearly dependent set in $\mathbb{R}^n$, because there are more vectors (p) than entries (n) in each vector. So there exist scalars $c_1, \dots, c_p$, not all zero, such that

$$c_1[\,\mathbf{u}_1\,]_{\mathcal{B}} + \cdots + c_p[\,\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The zero vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Since the coordinate mapping is a linear transformation,

$$[\,c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The zero vector on the right displays the n weights needed to build the vector $c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p$ from the basis vectors in $\mathcal{B}$. That is, $c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p = 0 \cdot \mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + 0 \cdot \mathbf{b}_n = \mathbf{0}$. Since the c_i are not all zero, $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is linearly dependent.[1] ■

Theorem 9 implies that if a vector space V has a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$, then each linearly independent set in V has no more than n vectors.

[1] Theorem 9 also applies to infinite sets in V. An infinite set is said to be linearly dependent if some finite subset is linearly dependent; otherwise, the set is linearly independent. If S is an infinite set in V, take any subset $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ of S, with $p > n$. The proof above shows that this subset is linearly dependent, and hence so is S.

THEOREM 10

If a vector space V has a basis of n vectors, then every basis of V must consist of exactly n vectors.

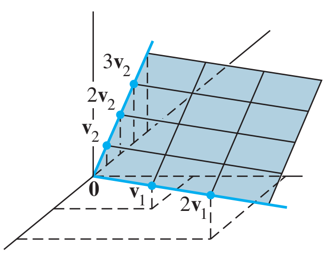
PROOF Let $\mathcal{B}_1$ be a basis of n vectors and $\mathcal{B}_2$ be any other basis (of V). Since $\mathcal{B}_1$ is a basis and $\mathcal{B}_2$ is linearly independent, $\mathcal{B}_2$ has no more than n vectors, by Theorem 9. Also, since $\mathcal{B}_2$ is a basis and $\mathcal{B}_1$ is linearly independent, $\mathcal{B}_2$ has at least n vectors. Thus $\mathcal{B}_2$ consists of exactly n vectors. ■

If a nonzero vector space V is spanned by a finite set S, then a subset of S is a basis for V, by the Spanning Set Theorem. In this case, Theorem 10 ensures that the following definition makes sense.

DEFINITION

If V is spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **finite-dimensional**, and the **dimension** of V, written as dim V, is the number of vectors in a basis for V. The dimension of the zero vector space $\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is defined to be zero. If V is not spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **infinite-dimensional**.

EXAMPLE 1 The standard basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$ contains n vectors, so $\dim \mathbb{R}^n = n$. The standard polynomial basis $\{1, t, t^2\}$ shows that $\dim \mathbb{P}_2 = 3$. In general, $\dim \mathbb{P}_n = n + 1$. The space $\mathbb{P}$ of all polynomials is infinite-dimensional (Exercise 27). ■



EXAMPLE 2 Let $H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$, where $\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then H is the plane studied in Example 7 in Section 4.4. A basis for H is $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$, since $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are not multiples and hence are linearly independent. Thus $\dim H = 2$. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find the dimension of the subspace

$$H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a - 3b + 6c \\ 5a + 4d \\ b - 2c - d \\ 5d \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c, d \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

SOLUTION It is easy to see that H is the set of all linear combinations of the vectors

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Clearly, $\mathbf{v}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$, $\mathbf{v}_2$ is not a multiple of $\mathbf{v}_1$, but $\mathbf{v}_3$ is a multiple of $\mathbf{v}_2$. By the Spanning Set Theorem, we may discard $\mathbf{v}_3$ and still have a set that spans H. Finally, $\mathbf{v}_4$ is not a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$. So $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is linearly independent (by Theorem 4 in Section 4.3) and hence is a basis for H. Thus $\dim H = 3$. ■

EXAMPLE 4 The subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$ can be classified by dimension. See Fig. 1.

0-dimensional subspaces. Only the zero subspace.

1-dimensional subspaces. Any subspace spanned by a single nonzero vector. Such subspaces are lines through the origin.

2-dimensional subspaces. Any subspace spanned by two linearly independent vectors. Such subspaces are planes through the origin.

3-dimensional subspaces. Only $\mathbb{R}^3$ itself. Any three linearly independent vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ span all of $\mathbb{R}^3$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem. ■

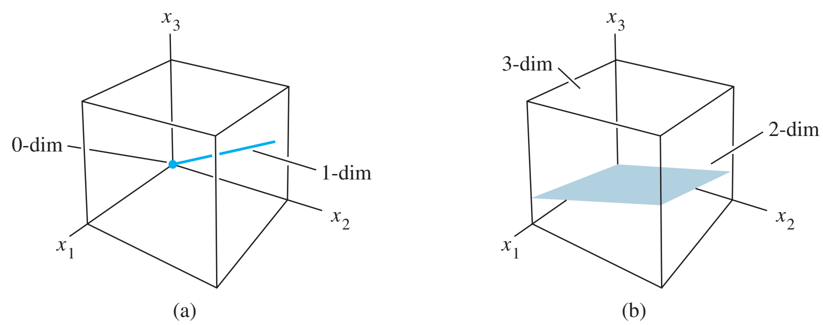


FIGURE 1 Sample subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Subspaces of a Finite-Dimensional Space

The next theorem is a natural counterpart to the Spanning Set Theorem.

THEOREM 11

Let H be a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V. Any linearly independent set in H can be expanded, if necessary, to a basis for H. Also, H is finite-dimensional and

$$\dim H \leq \dim V$$

PROOF If $H = \{\mathbf{0}\}$, then certainly $\dim H = 0 \leq \dim V$. Otherwise, let $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$ be any linearly independent set in H. If S spans H, then S is a basis for H. Otherwise, there is some $\mathbf{u}_{k+1}$ in H that is not in Span S. But then $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_k, \mathbf{u}_{k+1}\}$ will be linearly independent, because no vector in the set can be a linear combination of vectors that precede it (by Theorem 4).

So long as the new set does not span H, we can continue this process of expanding S to a larger linearly independent set in H. But the number of vectors in a linearly independent expansion of S can never exceed the dimension of V, by Theorem 9. So eventually the expansion of S will span H and hence will be a basis for H, and $\dim H \leq \dim V$. ■

When the dimension of a vector space or subspace is known, the search for a basis is simplified by the next theorem. It says that if a set has the right number of elements, then one has only to show either that the set is linearly independent or that it spans the space. The theorem is of critical importance in numerous applied problems (involving differential equations or difference equations, for example) where linear independence is much easier to verify than spanning.

THEOREM 12

The Basis Theorem

Let V be a p-dimensional vector space, $p \geq 1$. Any linearly independent set of exactly p elements in V is automatically a basis for V. Any set of exactly p elements that spans V is automatically a basis for V.

PROOF By Theorem 11, a linearly independent set S of p elements can be extended to a basis for V. But that basis must contain exactly p elements, since $\dim V = p$. So S must already be a basis for V. Now suppose that S has p elements and spans V. Since V is nonzero, the Spanning Set Theorem implies that a subset S' of S is a basis of V. Since $\dim V = p$, S' must contain p vectors. Hence $S = S'$. ■

The Dimensions of Nul A and Col A

Since the pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis for Col A, we know the dimension of Col A as soon as we know the pivot columns. The dimension of Nul A might seem to require more work, since finding a basis for Nul A usually takes more time than a basis for Col A. But there is a shortcut!

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, and suppose the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has k free variables. From Section 4.2, we know that the standard method of finding a spanning set for Nul A will produce exactly k linearly independent vectors—say, $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k$—one for each free variable. So $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$ is a basis for Nul A, and the number of free variables determines the size of the basis. Let us summarize these facts for future reference.

The dimension of Nul A is the number of free variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$, and the dimension of Col A is the number of pivot columns in A.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the dimensions of the null space and the column space of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6 & -1 & 1 & -7 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 5 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

SOLUTION Row reduce the augmented matrix $\begin{bmatrix} A & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$ to echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

There are three free variables—x_2, x_4, and x_5. Hence the dimension of Nul A is 3. Also, $\dim \text{Col } A = 2$ because A has two pivot columns. ■

PRACTICE PROBLEMS

Decide whether each statement is True or False, and give a reason for each answer. Here V is a nonzero finite-dimensional vector space.

1. If $\dim V = p$ and if S is a linearly dependent subset of V, then S contains more than p vectors.
2. If S spans V and if T is a subset of V that contains more vectors than S, then T is linearly dependent.

4.5 EXERCISES

For each subspace in Exercises 1–8, (a) find a basis for the subspace, and (b) state the dimension.

1. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} s-2t \\ s+t \\ 3t \end{bmatrix} : s, t \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$

2. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2a \\ -4b \\ -2a \end{bmatrix} : a, b \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$

3. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2c \\ a-b \\ b-3c \\ a+2b \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$

4. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} p+2q \\ -p \\ 3p-q \\ p+q \end{bmatrix} : p, q \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$

5. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} p-2q \\ 2p+5r \\ -2q+2r \\ -3p+6r \end{bmatrix} : p, q, r \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$

6. $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3a-c \\ -b-3c \\ -7a+6b+5c \\ -3a+c \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$

7. $\{(a, b, c) : a - 3b + c = 0, b - 2c = 0, 2b - c = 0\}$

8. $\{(a, b, c, d) : a - 3b + c = 0\}$

9. Find the dimension of the subspace of all vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose first and third entries are equal.

10. Find the dimension of the subspace H of $\mathbb{R}^2$ spanned by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$.

In Exercises 11 and 12, find the dimension of the subspace spanned by the given vectors.

11. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

12. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 5 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$

Determine the dimensions of Nul A and Col A for the matrices shown in Exercises 13–18.

13. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 & 9 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & -4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

14. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 & 3 & -2 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

15. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

16. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ -6 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

17. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

18. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

In Exercises 19 and 20, V is a vector space. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer.

19. a. The number of pivot columns of a matrix equals the dimension of its column space.
 b. A plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is a two-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
 c. The dimension of the vector space $\mathbb{P}_4$ is 4.
 d. If $\dim V = n$ and S is a linearly independent set in V, then S is a basis for V.
 e. If a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ spans a finite-dimensional vector space V and if T is a set of more than p vectors in V, then T is linearly dependent.

20. a. $\mathbb{R}^2$ is a two-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$.
 b. The number of variables in the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ equals the dimension of Nul A.
 c. A vector space is infinite-dimensional if it is spanned by an infinite set.
 d. If $\dim V = n$ and if S spans V, then S is a basis of V.
 e. The only three-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^3$ is $\mathbb{R}^3$ itself.

21. The first four Hermite polynomials are $1, 2t, -2 + 4t^2$, and $-12t + 8t^3$. These polynomials arise naturally in the study of certain important differential equations in mathematical physics.[2] Show that the first four Hermite polynomials form a basis of $\mathbb{P}_3$.

22. The first four Laguerre polynomials are $1, 1 - t, 2 - 4t + t^2$, and $6 - 18t + 9t^2 - t^3$. Show that these polynomials form a basis of $\mathbb{P}_3$.

23. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the basis of $\mathbb{P}_3$ consisting of the Hermite polynomials in Exercise 21, and let $\mathbf{p}(t) = -1 + 8t^2 + 8t^3$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

24. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the basis of $\mathbb{P}_2$ consisting of the first three Laguerre polynomials listed in Exercise 22, and let $\mathbf{p}(t) = 5 + 5t - 2t^2$. Find the coordinate vector of $\mathbf{p}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

25. Let S be a subset of an n-dimensional vector space V, and suppose S contains fewer than n vectors. Explain why S cannot span V.

26. Let H be an n-dimensional subspace of an n-dimensional vector space V. Show that $H = V$.

27. Explain why the space $\mathbb{P}$ of all polynomials is an infinite-dimensional space.

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[2] See *Introduction to Functional Analysis*, 2d ed., by A. E. Taylor and David C. Lay (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1980), pp. 92–93. Other sets of polynomials are discussed there, too.

28. Show that the space $C(\mathbb{R})$ of all continuous functions defined on the real line is an infinite-dimensional space.

In Exercises 29 and 30, V is a nonzero finite-dimensional vector space, and the vectors listed belong to V. Mark each statement True or False. Justify each answer. (These questions are more difficult than those in Exercises 19 and 20.)

29. a. If there exists a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ that spans V, then $\dim V \le p$.

b. If there exists a linearly independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V, then $\dim V \ge p$.

c. If $\dim V = p$, then there exists a spanning set of $p + 1$ vectors in V.

30. a. If there exists a linearly dependent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ in V, then $\dim V \le p$.

b. If every set of p elements in V fails to span V, then $\dim V > p$.

c. If $p \ge 2$ and $\dim V = p$, then every set of $p - 1$ nonzero vectors is linearly independent.

Exercises 31 and 32 concern finite-dimensional vector spaces V and W and a linear transformation $T : V \to W$.

31. Let H be a nonzero subspace of V, and let $T(H)$ be the set of images of vectors in H. Then $T(H)$ is a subspace of W, by Exercise 35 in Section 4.2. Prove that $\dim T(H) \le \dim H$.

32. Let H be a nonzero subspace of V, and suppose T is a one-to-one (linear) mapping of V into W. Prove that $\dim T(H) = \dim H$. If T happens to be a one-to-one mapping of V *onto* W, then $\dim V = \dim W$. Isomorphic finite-dimensional vector spaces have the same dimension.

33. **[M]** According to Theorem 11, a linearly independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ can be expanded to a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$. One way to do this is to create $A = [\,\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_k \ \mathbf{e}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{e}_n\,]$, with $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ the columns of the identity matrix; the pivot columns of A form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

a. Use the method described to extend the following vectors to a basis for $\mathbb{R}^5$:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ -7 \\ 8 \\ -5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 7 \\ -8 \\ 5 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}$$

b. Explain why the method works in general: Why are the original vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ included in the basis found for Col A? Why is Col $A = \mathbb{R}^n$?

34. **[M]** Let $\mathcal{B} = \{1, \cos t, \cos^2 t, \dots, \cos^6 t\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{1, \cos t, \cos 2t, \dots, \cos 6t\}$. Assume the following trigonometric identities (see Exercise 37 in Section 4.1).

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos 2t &= -1 + 2\cos^2 t \\
\cos 3t &= -3\cos t + 4\cos^3 t \\
\cos 4t &= 1 - 8\cos^2 t + 8\cos^4 t \\
\cos 5t &= 5\cos t - 20\cos^3 t + 16\cos^5 t \\
\cos 6t &= -1 + 18\cos^2 t - 48\cos^4 t + 32\cos^6 t
\end{aligned}$$

Let H be the subspace of functions spanned by the functions in $\mathcal{B}$. Then $\mathcal{B}$ is a basis for H, by Exercise 38 in Section 4.3.

a. Write the $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vectors of the vectors in $\mathcal{C}$, and use them to show that $\mathcal{C}$ is a linearly independent set in H.

b. Explain why $\mathcal{C}$ is a basis for H.

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE PROBLEMS

1. False. Consider the set $\{\mathbf{0}\}$.

2. True. By the Spanning Set Theorem, S contains a basis for V; call that basis S'. Then T will contain more vectors than S'. By Theorem 9, T is linearly dependent.

4.6 RANK

With the aid of vector space concepts, this section takes a look *inside* a matrix and reveals several interesting and useful relationships hidden in its rows and columns.

For instance, imagine placing 2000 random numbers into a 40×50 matrix A and then determining both the maximum number of linearly independent columns in A and the maximum number of linearly independent columns in A^T (rows in A). Remarkably, the two numbers are the same. As we'll soon see, their common value is the *rank* of the matrix. To explain why, we need to examine the subspace spanned by the rows of A.